

Nano-enabled weed management in agriculture: From strategic design to enhanced herbicidal activity

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ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Agriculture
Nanopesticides
Weed control
Sustainable agriculture
Pest management

ABSTRACT

The use of nanotechnology has emerged in the agricultural sector. In recent years, several nano-enabled materials have been reported for weed control. Nano-enabled herbicides (also called nanoherbicides) can be designed from organic, inorganic, or hybrid materials. These materials have unique properties such as small size, specific surface area, and the ability to control the release of metal ions and organic molecules in the agricultural field. Some studies have reported the ability of nanoherbicides to provide better weed management compared to non-nanoformulations. However, studies regarding the environmental risk assessment and mechanisms of action of nanoherbicides in plants are still incipient. Nevertheless, they are essential to ensure a safe application for human health and the environment. In this review, we outlined the current understanding of nano-enabled herbicides as well as some strategic design to fabricate nanostructures for weed control. Also, a critical discussion regarding the fate, behavior and effects of nanoherbicides in plants was addressed in order to achieve products for environmentally friendly and sustainable agriculture.

1. Introduction

The world's population is expected to reach over 9.7 billion in 2050 (FAO, 2018). Moreover, with climate change impacts, soil erosion, and pre-harvest losses, the pressure to develop sustainable agriculture practices will further increase in the future (Popp et al., 2013; FAO, 2017; Wu and Li, 2022; Kah et al., 2019). Besides, agrochemicals are constantly used to improve food production. Their indiscriminate and abusive use causes damage to public health and environmental contamination (Dong et al., 2021a; Okeke et al., 2021). In the current scenario, approximately 4 million tones of pesticides are used annually for food production worldwide (Sharma et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2022a), of which 40% are herbicides, 30% are insecticides, and 20% are fungicides (Rojas et al., 2022). Nevertheless, the enormous quantity of pesticides used is linked to the low adhesion of these active ingredients (a.i.) on leaves, high soil sorption, and physicochemical instability (Dong et al., 2021b). Previous research has shown that less than 10% of conventional pesticides are targeted toward the plant (Zhao et al., 2018), and only 0.1% of these stay long enough to reach the targeted pest, while the rest goes directly to the surrounding

environment (Liang et al., 2018; Mujtaba et al., 2020; Sarkar et al., 2022).

Nowadays, nanotechnology represents a novel direction for sustainable agriculture development (White and Gardea-Torresdey, 2018; Fraceto et al., 2016; Grillo et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2022a; Hofmann et al., 2020; An et al., 2022). One aspect of this expansion is the creation of nano-enabled materials for the controlled release of fertilizers and pesticides, as shown in Fig. 1. Moreover, nanopesticides were named as one of ten chemical innovations that will change the world in a sustainable way by the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC) (Gomollón-Bel, 2019). However, several countries do not have specific legislation for the use and commercialization of these products (Grillo et al., 2021a). In contrast, the USA registered its first nanopesticide in 2011, while China has already registered many others (Bocca et al., 2020). In the last decade, research has demonstrated the advantages of nanopesticides. However, environmental risk assessment studies in the field are still incipient, and they are critical to ensure safe application for humans and the environment avoiding alarmism or exaggerated expectations regarding results (Bocca et al., 2020; Santiago et al., 2020; Singh et al., 2020; Dong et al., 2021b; Grillo et al., 2021a).

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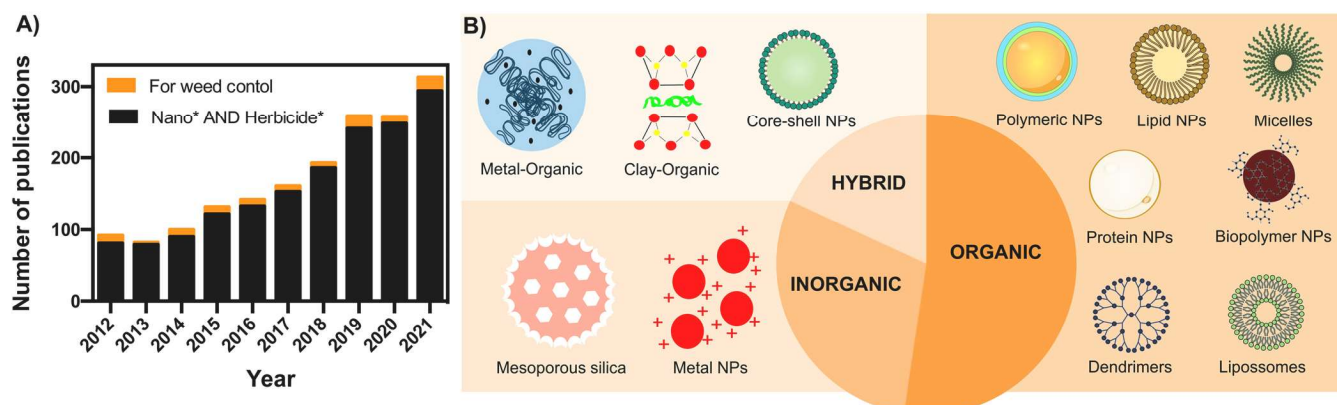


Fig. 1. **A)** Number of papers published annually using descriptors “nano* ” and “herbicide* ” in the ISI Web of Knowledge database from 2012 to 2021 - Orange bars show nano-enabled materials for weed control. **B)** Percentage distribution and some types of nanoherbicides developed in recent years.

Among the various nanopesticides, there are systems developed to control insects (Awad et al., 2021), weeds (Taban et al., 2020), bacteria (Tan et al., 2020), fungus (Machado et al., 2022), etc. Also, they can be categorized into three principal types: i) inorganic substances derived from metals, metals oxide, clay minerals, etc; ii) those in which the active ingredient (a.i.) is encapsulated in an organic nanocarrier derived from protein, polymers, lipids, and so on; or iii) hybrid nanostructures containing both inorganic and organic materials (Forini et al., 2020; Reddy and Chhabra., 2022). Furthermore, the evolution of nanoscience has brought strategies to architect more specific and intelligent nanopesticides (Abdollahdokht et al., 2022), and several examples have been reported in recent reviews (Rastogi et al., 2017; Grillo et al., 2021a; Kumar et al., 2021).

Recently, nano-enabled weed-controlling substances, commonly referred to as nanoherbicides, have demonstrated a potential use in sustainable agriculture. For example, a search in the Web of Science database (WoS) from 2012 to 2021 using the descriptors “nano*” and “herbicide*” yielded 1627 published scientific articles (Fig. 1-A). However, only ca. 100 peer-reviewed scientific articles were described as potential sources for weed control. According to this, organic nanoherbicides are the most studied, followed by inorganic and hybrid materials (Fig. 1-B), which can present different morphology and physicochemical properties. However, since the term “nano” is not always utilized in all scientific papers and some formulations may have a size higher than 100 nm (Chen and Wang, 2019; Takeshita et al., 2021), it is important to take these findings into account as a part of the research that has been developed in this sector. As a result, all nanoformulations found for weed control with the descriptors mentioned, whether or not associated with a.i., were designated nanoherbicides for the purposes of this review. Thus, we outline the current understanding of nano-enabled herbicides as well as some strategic design to fabricate nanostructures for weed control. A critical discussion addressing the fate, behavior, and impacts of nanoherbicides on plants was also addressed in order to develop solutions for ecologically friendly and sustainable agriculture.

2. Types of nano-enabled herbicides

Several studies were carried out for the development of nano-enabled herbicides due to their greater efficiency and environmental advantages (Xiang et al., 2017; Pontes et al., 2021; Oliveira et al., 2015a; Sousa et al., 2018). Nanoherbicides have shown better spread, adhesion, and longer contact time on the leaves and are able to control the release of a.i. (e.g., ions or biomolecules) (Grillo et al., 2021b; Peixoto et al., 2021). The effect of nanoherbicides on plants, however, is determined by their physicochemical properties, which include size, morphology, surface chemistry, concentration, etc. Therefore, the idea of strategic design has been applied in order to ensure the “optimal”

properties of the nanoherbicides on target organisms. Several nanoherbicide examples can be found in the literature, and some of them are addressed in the sections that follow.

2.1. Organic nano-enabled herbicides

Organic nanomaterials are outstanding materials for assembling nanoherbicides, and they can be based on polymers (Chen and Wang, 2019; Takeshita et al., 2021), lipids (de Oliveira et al., 2015), lignocellulosic materials (Kumar et al., 2014; Lima et al., 2021), proteins (Heydari et al., 2021a), complex macromolecules as dendrimers (Petit et al., 2012; Maes et al., 2021), etc. Overall, several techniques can be reported to produce nanoherbicides, with the nanoemulsion method being one of the most utilized (Lim et al., 2012; Lim et al., 2013b; Guo et al., 2014a; Zainuddin et al., 2019).

Overall, polymers are widely used in nano-enabled herbicide formulations due to their biodegradability and biocompatibility (Shakiba et al., 2020). For instance, poly(ϵ -caprolactone) (PCL) nanoparticles were developed primarily for atrazine (ATZ) (Grillo et al., 2012; Kah et al., 2014; Oliveira et al., 2015b; Sousa et al., 2018; Bombo et al., 2019; Zhai et al., 2020; Takeshita et al., 2021), metribuzin (MTZ) (Boyandin and Kazantseva, 2021), and ametryn (Clemente et al., 2014). Furthermore, synthesis of biopolymer-based nanocarriers for herbicide, such as chitosan (CS), was reported using chemical crosslinking agents (e.g., tripolyphosphate (TPP) (Grillo et al., 2014; Jacques et al., 2017; Paulraj et al., 2017), or functionalization with molecules such as 11-mercapto undecanoic acid (MUA) or N-octyl derivatives (Yu et al., 2015; Kamari and Yusoff, 2019). Chitosan functionalization and bioconjugation may be the keys to discovering excellent nano-enabled herbicides as well (Mohammadi et al., 2021). Hence, chitosan nanoparticles were reported with paraquat (PQ) (Silva et al., 2011; Grillo et al., 2015; Moreno et al., 2018; Rashidipour et al., 2019; Dong et al., 2021b; Pontes et al., 2021), glyphosate (Rychter, 2019), imazapic, imazapyr (Maruyama et al., 2016), and clomazone (de Oliveira et al., 2016). Also, copolymers such as poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid) (PLGA) can serve as potential nano-enabled herbicides due to the ability to manipulate their degradation in the environment (Tong et al., 2017; Schnoor et al., 2018).

Other efficient biopolymers for herbicide delivery are lignocellulosic materials such as lignin and nano/cellulose (Kumar et al., 2014; Lima et al., 2021; Yin et al., 2021). Moreover, pectin, a lignocellulosic material located in plants' primary cell walls, demonstrates a good acceptor for metsulfuron methyl herbicide (Kumar et al., 2017a). Pectin can also form blends with smaller molecules such as essential oils (Taban et al., 2021), which may have herbicidal activity. Furthermore, essential oils can be blended into gums/gelatin or nano-emulsified as a herbicide with an oil/water solution (Hazrati et al., 2017; Taban et al., 2020).

Table 1
Examples of organic nano-enabled herbicides and their main findings for weed control.

| Nanoherbicide | Plant | Findings | Ref |
|--|--|--|---|
| PCL_ATZ NPs; PCL_Ametryn NPs; PCL_Simazine NPs; Nanoemulsion containing glyphosate | <i>Allium cepa</i> L. None | PCL NPs loaded herbicide showed less toxicity than free a.i. The system improved the bioactivity and bioavailability of the herbicide. | (Grillo et al., 2012) (Lim et al., 2012) |
| PCL_ATZ NPs | None | Good stability after 30 days and high encapsulation efficiency ~90%. | (Souza et al., 2012) |
| Nanoemulsion containing glyphosate CS_Alginat NPs | <i>Eleusine indica</i> (L.) Gaertn None | Size < 200 nm; Good biological effectiveness. Low soil sorption, which improved its availability for herbicidal action. | (Jiang et al., 2012) (Silva et al., 2012) |
| Dendrimer_glyphosate Nanoemulsion containing glyphosate | <i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i> Dangeard <i>Asystasia gangetica</i> (L.) T. Anderson; <i>Diodia ocymifolia</i> (Willd.) Bremek.; <i>Paspalum conjugatum</i> Berg <i>Chlorella vulgaris</i> Beij | Nanoherbicide showed toxic effect to algae. Improved uptake of herbicides in plants and reduced dosage. | (Petit et al., 2012) (Lim et al., 2013a) |
| Carbon nanotubes_Diuron | | The system was partially toxic to the algae, and the photosynthetic yield was not altered. | (Schwab et al., 2013) |
| PCL_ATZ NPs; PCL_Ametryn NPs | <i>Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata</i> (Korshikov) F. Hindak | The nanoformulations showed lower toxicity than the commercial ones. | (Clemente et al., 2014) |
| CS/TPP_PQ NPs | <i>Allium cepa</i> L.; <i>Zea mays</i> L.; <i>Brassica</i> sp. L. | Reduced herbicide toxicity; however, herbicide activity was maintained. | (Grillo et al., 2014) |
| PCL_ATZ NPs | <i>Brassica</i> sp.; <i>Zea mays</i> L.; <i>Allium cepa</i> L. | The nanoformulation was effective against target organisms, and it did not cause impact to the non-target organism. | (Pereira et al., 2014) |
| NC (BMA_DAAM) Acetochlor | <i>Alopecurus aequalis</i> Sobol; <i>Polypogon fugax</i> Nees | Size ~100 nm with good effectiveness in controlling weeds. | (Guo et al., 2014b) |
| PCL_ATZ NPs | None | Nanoherbicides may have different sorption on the soil. | (Kah et al., 2014) |
| Carboxymethyl Cellulose NC_ clodinafop-propyrgyl CS/TPP_PQ NPs | None <i>Allium cepa</i> L.; <i>Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata</i> (Korshikov) F. Hindak | Nanoherbicide showed slow release, herbicidal efficacy and low toxicity. Humic substances reduced toxic effects of the nanoherbicide for algae. | (Kumar et al., 2014) (Grillo et al., 2015) |
| SLN_Simazine; SLN_ATZ | <i>Raphanus raphanistrum</i> L.; <i>Zea mays</i> L. | The nanoformulations did not cause toxicity in non-target organisms; SLN showed phytotoxicity in shoots and roots of target plants. | (de Oliveira et al., 2015) |
| PCL_ATZ NPs | <i>Zea mays</i> L. | The nanoformulations caused transient effects such as a reduction in the maximum quantum yield of photosystem II and an increase in lipid peroxidation. | (Oliveira et al., 2015b) |
| PCL_ATZ NPs | <i>Brassica juncea</i> (L.) Czern | Reduction of photosynthesis and maximum quantum yield of photosystem II. | (Oliveira et al., 2015a) |
| Biochar_2,4-D | <i>Brassica</i> sp.; <i>Zea mays</i> L. | The nanoformulation did not cause toxicity in the non-target plant. However, it was lethal to <i>Brassica</i> sp. with an increase in herbicidal activity. | (Abigail et al., 2016) |
| CS/TPP NPs CS/Alginate NPs | <i>Bidens pilosa</i> L.; <i>Allium cepa</i> L. | Reduction of genotoxicity and toxicity at low concentrations. | (Maruyama et al., 2016) |
| Microemulsion of pretilachlor 2,4-D-NBA-PEG | <i>Echinochloa crus-galli</i> (L.) P. Beauv. None | The nanoherbicide increased the herbicidal effect. Development of photoresponsive micelles with slow release under solar irradiation. | (Kumar et al., 2016) (Ding et al., 2016) |
| Nanoemulsion_garden sarvori (<i>Satureja ortensis</i>) essential oil Pectin NPs_ metsulfuron methyl | <i>Amaranthus retroflexus</i> L.; <i>Chenopodium album</i> L. <i>Chenopodium album</i> L. | Reduced germination, seedling growth, and weed chlorophyll content. Good herbicidal activity even in low doses of a.i., and low toxicity effect. | (Hazrati et al., 2017) (Kumar et al., 2017a) |
| Guar gum nanohydrogel | <i>Coronopus didymus</i> (L.) Smith; <i>Melilotus indica</i> (L.) All; <i>Chenopodium album</i> L.; <i>Avena sterilis</i> ssp.ludoviciana Dur; <i>Phalaris minor</i> Retz | Controlled release system; Reduction in weed populations. | (Kumar et al., 2017b) |
| PCL_ATZ NPs | <i>Bidens pilosa</i> L.; <i>Amaranthus viridis</i> L. | Reduction in photosystem II activity and inhibition of plant growth. | (Sousa et al., 2018) |
| PLGA_ATZ NPs | <i>Solanum tuberosum</i> L. | Effective in inhibiting plant growth with low toxicity. | (Schnoor et al., 2018) |
| PMMA_Haloxyfop-R-metil NPs | <i>Lemna minor</i> L. | The nanoherbicide showed lower toxicity on the macrophyte compared to the non-encapsulated. | (Torbati et al., 2018) |
| Biochar_2,4-D | <i>Brassica</i> sp.; <i>Zea mays</i> L. | The system showed sustained release for ~26 days and good herbicidal activity. | (Abigail, 2019) |
| PMMA_Haloxyfop-R-metil NPs | None | Nanoherbicide showed average diameter of 100–300 nm, ~95% encapsulation efficiency and slow release kinetic profile. | (Mahmoudian et al., 2020) |
| PLGA_ATZ NPs | None | The size distribution and encapsulation efficiency of the a.i. were from 204 to 520 nm and 31.6 to 50.5%, respectively. | (Chen and Wang, 2019) |

(continued on next page)

Table 1 (continued)

| Nanoherbicide | Plant | Findings | Ref |
|--|--|--|---------------------------------|
| PCL_MTZ NPs | <i>Portulaca oleracea</i> L.; | The nanoherbicide maintained its herbicidal activity for target plants. | (Diyanat and Saeidian, 2019) |
| PCL_Pretilachlor NPs | <i>Glycine max</i> (L.) Merr. | Nanoherbicide increased herbicidal activity with low toxic effect. | (Diyanat et al., 2019) |
| NOOSC_ATZ | <i>Echinochloa crus-galli</i> (L.) P. Beauv; | Encapsulation efficiency > 90%; controlled release of the herbicide atrazine. | (Kamari and Yusoff, 2019) |
| NONSC_ATZ | <i>Oryza sativa</i> L. | | |
| NOOGC_ATZ | None | | |
| Nanoemulsion_palm oil and <i>Parthenium hysterophorus</i> L. crude extract | <i>Diodia ocyimifolia</i> (Willd. ex Roem. & Schult.) Bremek | Inhibition of seed germination due to small particle size. | (Zainuddin et al., 2019) |
| PCL_ATZ NPs | <i>Brassica juncea</i> (L.) Czern | The nanoformulation showed herbicidal activity at low concentrations. | (Bombo et al., 2019) |
| CS/TPP_PQ NPs | None | DLS, PDI and potential zeta were ~ 150 nm, < 0.4, > 20 mV. | (Moreno et al., 2018) |
| Nano-hydrogels_CS | <i>Zea mays</i> L.; | Good herbicidal activity for the target specie, and low toxicity for the non-target. | (Ghaderpoori et al., 2020) |
| Micelles_CS_2,4-D | <i>Brassica</i> sp. | Good herbicidal activity for the target specie, and low toxicity for the non-target. | (Feng et al., 2020) |
| NCs_savory (<i>Satureja ortensis</i> L.) essential oil | <i>Cucumis sativus</i> L.; | Nanoherbicide showed good herbicidal activity, causing a reduction of photosynthetic pigments in plants. | (Taban et al., 2020) |
| PCL_ATZ NPs | <i>Triticum aestivum</i> L. | NC_ATZ increased the herbicidal activity against weed species. | (Preisler et al., 2020) |
| Nano-hydrogel_ glyphosate | <i>Lycopersicon esculentum</i> Mill.; | Nanoherbicides reduced the impact on non-target species and improved herbicidal activity.; | (Zhang et al., 2020) |
| QNC-EB-COFs | <i>Amaranthus retroflexus</i> L. | Sustained release and good herbicidal activity against weeds. | (Deng et al., 2021) |
| NCEs | <i>Bidens pilosa</i> L.; | The phytotoxic capacity caused a reduction in germination and plant weight. | (Taban et al., 2021) |
| PCL_Metribuzin NPs | <i>Glycine max</i> L. | Nanoherbicide showed a long-term release of ~81–96% during seven days. | (Boyandin and Kazantseva, 2021) |
| Nano_hydrogel_Dicamba | Weeds; | Nanoherbicide showed a sustained release for 10 days. | (Artusio et al., 2021) |
| PCL_ATZ NPs | <i>Oryza sativa</i> L. | Nanoformulation reduced the activity of photosystem II at low doses of the a.i.. | (Takeshita et al., 2021) |
| PCL_ATZ NPs | <i>Echinochloa crusgalli</i> (L.) P. Beauv | Nanoformulation inhibited lettuce growth in a short-term exposure, and induced adverse effects in the long-term. | (Wu et al., 2021) |
| NSs_Ailanthone | <i>Amaranthus retroflexus</i> L.; | Nanoherbicide reported prolonged release of the a.i., and increased its herbicidal activity. | (Demasi et al., 2021) |
| Carbon nanotubes_Glyphosate | <i>Solanum lycopersicum</i> L.; | Nanoherbicide exhibited changes in plant growth and photosynthetic apparatus of the plant. | (Ke et al., 2021) |
| Nanoemulsion_Foeniculum vulgare essential oil | None | Low-dose of nanoemulsions inhibited plant germination, affecting physiological processes. | (Kaur et al., 2021) |
| CS/TPP_PQ NPs | <i>Phalaris minor</i> Retz; | The nanoherbicide maintained the herbicidal activity of paraquat. | (Pontes et al., 2021) |
| Microemulsion_TM | <i>Avena ludoviciana</i> Durieu; | The nanoformulation exhibits herbicidal activity at low concentrations of a.i.. | (Heydari et al., 2021b) |
| | <i>Rumex dentatus</i> L.; | | |
| | <i>Medicago denticulata</i> Willd. | | |
| | <i>Spinacia oleracea</i> L. | | |
| | <i>Convolvulus arvensis</i> L. | | |

Acronyms: Butyl methacrylate (BMA); Diacetone acrylamide (DAAM); Polydispersity index (PDI); Dynamic light scattering (DLS); Optimized diuron nanoformulation (ODNF); Nanostructured liquid crystalline particles (NLCP); 3-nitro-4-bromomethylbenzoic acid- Polyethylene glycol (NBA-PEG); Poly(methyl methacrylate) (PMMA); N-octyl-O-sulfate chitosan (NOOSC); N-octyl-N-succinyl chitosan (NONSC); N-octyl-O-glycol chitosan (NOOGC); quinclorac (QNC); Ethidium bromide-based covalent organic frameworks (EB-COFs); Nano-encapsulated essential oils (NCEs); Dextrin-based nanosponges (NSs).

On the other hand, proteins are ascending in the formation of organic nano-enabled herbicides, with zein being the pioneer. Zein is a plant protein and can be a nanocarrier to carry out bioactives like tribenuron-methyl (TM) (Heydari et al., 2021a). Other organic molecules include perylene-3-ylmethanol, rice husk derivatives, polydopamine, and phytantriol (3,7,11,15-tetramethyl,2,3-hexadecanetriol), which can also be used as nanocarriers for herbicide (Atta et al., 2015; Abigail et al., 2016; Abigail, 2019; Shen et al., 2019). In addition, organic nano-enabled herbicides can range in design from nanocapsules to nanosponges (Demasi et al., 2021). Some examples of these types of nano-herbicide can be seen in Table 1.

2.2. Inorganic nano-enabled herbicides

Inorganic nano-enabled materials are increasingly being investigated for agricultural applications in order to improve crop yield

and herbicidal performance, resulting in waste reduction and runoff (Cartwright et al., 2020). Inorganic nano-enabled herbicides can be based on silica (Ghazali et al., 2021a), metal (Wen et al., 2016; Ke et al., 2018), mesoporous silica nanoparticles (Cao et al., 2018), etc. Some of these nanoherbicides can release ions, while others can encapsulate organic molecules and release them in a controlled manner. For instance, inorganic nanoformulations based on double-layer zinc/aluminum hydroxides (Hussein et al., 2005; Sharif et al., 2020c), or magnesium-aluminum associated with sepiolite clay (Rebitski et al., 2019), have been widely used for herbicide association since they may delay herbicide leaching through the soil (Hussein et al., 2005; Hussein et al., 2010; Sarijo et al., 2015; Ghazali et al., 2021b) and improve the transport of active ingredients to the plant (Rebitski et al., 2019). Also, these systems can encapsulate hydrophobic herbicides between their layers and be used to combat *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* Dang algae (Touloupakis et al., 2011). On the other hand, clay minerals can

Table 2

Examples of inorganic nano-enabled herbicides and their main findings for weed control.

| Nanoherbicide | Plant | Findings | Ref |
|---|---|--|---|
| Zn-layered hydroxide (ZLH)_DBPA_CPPA | None | PXRD and FTIR analyzes showed the intercalation of herbicides. The proportion of CPPA and DBPA interleaved in ZLH is ~ 16.22% and 83.78% (w/w). | (Hussein et al., 2012b) |
| Zn-layered hydroxide (ZLH)_4CPA | None | PXRD and FTIR analyzes showed the intercalation of herbicides, and the loading capacity was ~ 45.4% (w/w) | (Hussein et al., 2012a) |
| Zn-Al-MCPA-layered double hydroxide | None | PXRD and FTIR analyzes showed the intercalation of herbicide. Size of ZAL and ZAM was ~ 115 and 128 nm; MCPA loading capacity was ~ 45% (w/w). | (Sarijo et al., 2013) |
| Zn-Al-TBA-layered double hydroxide | None | PXRD and FTIR analyzes showed the intercalation of herbicide. TBA loading capacity was ~ 45.5% (w/w). | (Ghazali et al., 2014) |
| Hal_AMT Kaol_AMT | None | The formulation showed slow release of AMT, and the loading capacity was ~30.5% and 20.8% to the methoxy-modified Hal and Kaol, respectively. | (Tan et al., 2015a) |
| SMSs NPs_2,4-D | None | Formulation with the potential to slow release 2,4D herbicide. | (Bhardwaj et al., 2015) |
| Zn-Al-layered double hydroxide (ZAL)_MCPA_3,4D | None | PXRD, DIMS, and FTIR analyzes showed the intercalation of herbicide. MCPA and 3,4D loading capacity were ~13.4% and 28.3% (w/w). | (Sarijo et al., 2015) |
| AMT_Kaol _(MeOH) | None | The AMT loading in the methoxy-modified Kaol was ~ 20.8% (w/w), and the average diameter of the crystallites was 33.4 nm. | (Tan et al., 2015b) |
| Zn-Al-layered double hydroxide (ZAL)_CPA Zn-Al-layered double hydroxide (ZAL)_DPA Zn-Al-layered double hydroxide (ZAL)_DCPA | None | PXRD, DIMS, and FTIR analyzes showed the intercalation of herbicides. Promising system for the controlled release of more than one herbicide at the same time. | (Bashi et al., 2012) |
| HNTs-AT | None | The herbicide showed slow release profile compared to the free a.i.; FTIR and TEM analyzes evidenced the encapsulation of atrazine herbicide. | (Zhong et al., 2017) |
| Zn-Al-layered double hydroxide (ZAL)_BNOA | None | PXRD, and FTIR analyzes showed the intercalation of herbicide. The BNOA loading capacity was ~36.2% (w/w). | (Jubri et al., 2017) |
| Mesoporous silica NPs_TA_2,4-D | <i>Cucumis sativus</i> L.; <i>Triticum aestivum</i> L. | Good herbicidal bioactivity on target plant. | (Cao et al., 2018) |
| Layered double hydroxide (LDH)_Imz | <i>Brassica nigra</i> (L.) W.D.J. Koch | Nanoherbicides inhibited plant growth while maintaining its herbicidal activity. | (Khatem et al., 2019) |
| Clay-imazaquin | <i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>botrytis</i> (L.) | Increased effectiveness of herbicidal activity. | (López-Cabeza et al., 2019) |
| Mg-Al-layered double hydroxide (ZAL)_2,4-D | <i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> (L.) Heynh | Nanoclay applied in higher concentrations induced the formation of callose. | (Nadiminti et al., 2019) |
| Nanoclay_2,4-D | None | The release profile showed an initial fast release followed by a slow release. | (Natarelli et al., 2019) |
| DQ@MSN-SO ₃ | <i>Datura stramonium</i> L. | Stimulus-responsive delivery system. The nanoparticles showed good herbicidal activity. | (Shan et al., 2019) |
| HNTs-AIEAS | None | Nanoherbicides showed good herbicidal capacity and slow release profile of the a.i. | (Zeng et al., 2019) |
| Mg-Al-layered double hydroxide (ZAL)_2,4-D | None | XRD analysis showed the intercalation of the herbicide, and controlled release of the herbicide. | (Rebitski et al., 2019) |
| ZHN-SDS-BP | <i>Oryza sativa</i> L. | FTIR, XRD, and ICP-OES analyzes showed herbicide intercalation, and low release of the herbicide. | (Sharif et al., 2020a) |
| NF-sepiolite_MS | <i>Zea mays</i> L.; <i>Helianthus annuus</i> L. | Nanoformulation with the same bioactivity in the field compared to the commercial formulation. | (Galán-Jiménez et al., 2020) |
| Zn-Al-layered double hydroxide (ZAL)_CP Herbicide@HTlcs TMZNP-5 | None <i>Amaranthus retroflexus</i> <i>Convolvulus arvensis</i> L. | PXRD, and FTIR analyzes showed herbicide intercalation. HTlcs showed a potential herbicidal property. TMZNP-5 showed the same effectiveness as the commercial formulation at low concentrations. | (Sharif et al., 2020c) (Gao et al., 2021) (Heydari et al., 2021a) |
| Zn-Al-layered double hydroxide (ZAL)_TBA_MCPA | None | PXRD, FTIR, and FESEM analyzes showed the intercalation of the anions. | (Ghazali et al., 2021a) |
| Zn-Al-layered double hydroxides_TBA_3,4-D | None | Formulation with controlled release of the a.i. | (Ghazali et al., 2021b) |

Acronyms: 2-(3-chlorophenoxy) propionate (CPPA); 4-(2,4-dichlorophenoxy) butyrate (DPBA); 4-Chlorophenoxy acetate (4CPA); 2-methyl-4-chlorophenoxyacetic acid (MCPA); 2,4,5-trichlorophenoxybutyrate (TBA); Halloysite (Hal); Kaolinite (Kaol); Amitrole (AMT); Nanoparticles (NPs); Surfactant modified silicates (SMSs); 2,4-Dichlorophenoxyacetic acid (2,4-D); 3,4-dichlorophenoxyacetate (3,4-D); Silver (Ag); Imazethapyr (IM); 2,4-dichlorophenoxy acetate (DPA); Halloysite nanotubes (HNTs); beta-naphthoxyacetate (BNOA); Trimethylammonium (TA); Imazamox (Imz); Diquat dibromide (DQ); Active ingredients of *eupatorium adenophora* spreng (AIEAS); Zinc hydroxide nitrate (ZHN); Sodium dodecylsulphate (SDS); Bispyribac (BP); Nanoformulation (NF); Mesotrione (MS); Clopyralid (CP); Hydrotalcites (HTlcs); Tribenuron-methyl zein-based nanoparticles (TMZNP-5); X-ray powder diffraction patterns (PXRD); Fourier transform infrared (FTIR); Direct-injection mass spectroscopy (DIMS); Field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM); Inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES); Transmission electronic microscopy (MET).

potentially form nano-enabled herbicides since they can be biocompatible, cheap, and have good scalability (Lima et al., 2022). For instance, hydrotalcite nanosheets associated with herbicide showed better

physicochemical stability and herbicidal activity than conventional ones (Gao et al., 2021). Furthermore, mesoporous silica nanoparticles (MSN) are used as herbicide carriers due to their response to pH and

strong electrostatic interactions (Cao et al., 2018; Shan et al., 2019). Some examples of inorganic nanoherbicides can be shown in Table 2.

2.3. Hybrid nano-enabled herbicides

Hybrid materials have the potential to combine the advantages of two or more materials, such as organic and inorganic, into a single structure (Gao et al., 2020). These multifunctional nanomaterials can have a variety of properties, sizes, morphologies, and chemical compositions (Aich et al., 2014; Ananikov, 2019). Also, hybrid nanoherbicides can promote good targetability, traceability, and stimuli-responsiveness property (Chen et al., 2018a; Zhao et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021).

Biomass-based hybrids constituted by lignin, xylan, starch, and cellulose have been studied to encapsulate active molecules and be used in the targeted delivery of herbicides due to properties such as biocompatibility, biodegradability, and characteristics such as natural abundance and easy functionalization (Mahajan et al., 2021). For instance, the synthesis of hybrid xylan-lignin nanoparticles gives the nanomaterial amphiphilic properties and forms a core-shell structure (Jiang et al., 2020). In addition, lignin-based derivatives can be combined with inorganic substances such as copper salts, producing antibacterial and antifungal materials (Sinisi et al., 2019). Furthermore, organic-inorganic nanohybrids containing copper oxide nanoparticles show good antimicrobial activity (Almasi et al., 2018) and can be potential materials for weed control.

Inorganic mineral materials can also serve as hybrid nano-enabled herbicide, for example, natural clay and biopolymers have a great affinity with a wide range of pesticides that may be improved through chemical modifications (Granetto et al., 2022). Also, iron can also be associated with other inorganic materials such as montmorillonite (Mt) clay to design hybrid nanoherbicides (Marco-Brown et al., 2012) with excellent sorption capacity (Marco-Brown et al., 2017; Xiang et al., 2017). Thus, iron oxide NPs can confer a superparamagnetic property while promoting a responsive release as reported by Chi et al. (2021). Moreover, superparamagnetic iron oxide nanoparticles (SPIONs) associated with nanocomposites can promote intelligent nanocarriers for cargo delivery (Forini et al., 2020; Grillo et al., 2016), which can release a.i. under an external magnetic field.

In addition, metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) are emerging structures that can act as suitable carriers for the controlled release of herbicides since they have different properties, such as versatile hybrid compositions, large surface areas, and good stability (due to their porous structure) (Lee et al., 2022; Rojas et al., 2022). The encapsulation of herbicides in MOFs has a higher herbicidal activity when compared to the pure active ingredient since their transport mechanism can facilitate the assimilation by plant cells (Mejías et al., 2021).

Chemical interactions among different compounds can turn materials into excellent nano-enabled herbicide carriers. For instance, hydrophilic materials can be modified to encapsulate hydrophobic pesticide molecules (Hao et al., 2020a). Hence, with better spreadability, better leaf adhesion, and less UV irradiation degradation, hybrid nanocarriers are becoming more effective in encapsulating herbicides. These outcomes shape nanoherbicides as strong candidates in the journey of sustainable agriculture (Zhao et al., 2020; Hao et al., 2020b). Some examples of hybrid nanoherbicide can be shown in Table 3.

3. Nano-enabled herbicides can enhance the herbicidal activity

When compared to commercial formulations, the novel properties of nanoherbicides can lead to new mechanisms of biological interactions and improve herbicidal activity. The ability of nanocarriers to enhance the effect of a.i. in plants (Mittal et al., 2020) has been demonstrated in previous studies using nanoherbicides in a variety of plant systems. Currently, some hypotheses have been proposed to explain this phenomenon. For instance, the ability of nanoencapsulation to protect the a.i. against physicochemical degradation, particularly over the long-

term duration of field conditions, may be a great advantage associated with the use of nano-enabled herbicides (Mattos et al., 2017; de Oliveira et al., 2018). Additionally, the controlled and sustained release of chemical cargo over time is crucial for preventing its early physicochemical degradation and improving its efficiency by controlling the dissolution profiles of the herbicides (Mattos et al., 2017; Kah et al., 2018). This behavior is essential for the enhanced efficiency of nano-enabled herbicides.

The adhesion of post-emergent nanoherbicides to plant foliar tissues is currently attracting increasing interest. The leaves' outer layers, i.e., cuticle and epidermis, showed morphological and chemical composition differences according to plant species and environmental factors, such as temperature, humidity, and radiation (Barthlott et al., 2017; Lim et al., 2020; Stepiński et al., 2020). Leaf cuticles mainly consist of the amphiphilic long fatty acid-based polyester cutin and hydrophobic cuticular waxes, primarily located on the exterior side (Lim et al., 2020). The outer cuticular side is composed of cutin, and the inner cuticular side is composed of polysaccharides (Ziv et al., 2018). Thus, herbicides loaded into hydrophobic nanocapsules might show a better interaction with the leaf cuticle, for instance, increasing the delivery of a.i. to the plant target tissues (Avellan et al., 2019; Grillo et al., 2021b; Yang et al., 2021). Nonetheless, the cuticular uptake pathway is a potential route for nanopesticides' entrance into the leaves. Given the superior cuticle area on the leaf surface compared to the stomata area, the cuticle may be a more effective pathway for nanoherbicide adhesion and entry into the leaf (Fig. 2-A). Depending on the chemical nature of the nanoherbicides, the cuticular entrance of nano-enabled herbicides in the leaf may occur through small pores (pore pathway), cuticle diffusion or disruption (direct pathway), or both cases (Fig. 2-B).

In modern agriculture systems, the spraying process for conventional herbicide applications fails to target plant foliage. Some issues may arise during this process, such as droplet drifting, jumping, rolling down, rain washing, and herbicide decomposition (Zhao et al., 2018; Song et al., 2019; Shen et al., 2022). Herbicide wettability and retention on the surface of weed foliage are critical factors for improving herbicide deposition, adsorption, adhesion, and performance. Improving leaf surface adhesion with nanoherbicides has the potential to extend herbicide duration on weed leaves and improve utilization efficiency. Thus, literature reports that nanoherbicides provide better adhesion to plant foliage (Yu et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2018). For instance, it was feasible to modulate leaf adhesion and optimize herbicidal absorption and efficiency depending on the type and composition of the nanoherbicide. Also, the formation of H-bonding involving phenolic OH and the leaf surface may induce better leaf adhesion and high persistence of nanopesticides on the leaf surface (Grillo et al., 2021b). Another important factor is the surface charge of nanopesticides, which directly affects the interactions of nanopesticides with different biological components, such as proteins and carbohydrates (Tripathi et al., 2017).

Additionally, physicochemical properties of nanoherbicides such as the size, morphology, and surface charge of nanoherbicides (Fig. 2-C) are important traits related to the foliar adhesion, uptake, internalization, and action of nanoherbicides in plant tissues (Grillo et al., 2021b; Takeshita et al., 2021). Nanoherbicides with a size range of around < 100 nm can easily disrupt the cuticle waxy layer and penetrate through the plant cuticle (Larue et al., 2014). The surface charge of nanoherbicide is another important factor, mainly due to their activity as membrane disruptors by affecting proton motion force and facilitating intracellular transport (Shekhar et al., 2021). Therefore, a deeper understanding of how nanoherbicides' physicochemical properties contribute to their enhanced herbicidal action is essential for creating new, more effective nanoherbicides.

New studies are currently in progress involving nanoherbicides to investigate their enhanced herbicidal effects. For instance, nanoformulations containing herbicides have demonstrated pre- and post-emergence herbicidal effects. On cucumber plants, mesoporous silica loaded with 2, 4-D herbicide exhibited excellent inhibition behavior

Table 3

Examples of nano-enabled organic/inorganic hybrid herbicides and their main findings for weed control.

| Nanoherbicide | Plant | Findings | Ref |
|---|---|---|----------------------------|
| Fe ₃ O ₄ NPs coated with hollow silica spheres_glyphosate | None | Size < 100 nm; The herbicide release rate was affected by the shell thickness of the hollow silica spheres. | (Liu et al., 2012) |
| WG_C30B_ethofumesate | None | Nanoherbicide reported slow release of the a.i., and reduced the amount of herbicide available in the medium. | (Chevallard et al., 2012) |
| AgNPs_CS_PQ | <i>Eichhornia crassipes</i> (Mart.) Solms | The nanoformulation did not affect plant germination and growth. | (Namasivayam et al., 2014) |
| Starch-clay (MMT) nanocomposite_AMT | None | SEM and XRD analyzes showed an amorphous structure of the nanocomposite, and intercalation of the herbicide. | (Giroto et al., 2014) |
| WG_C30B_ethofumesate | <i>Lepidium sativum</i> L. | The nanoherbicide reduced watercress germination; and it showed a promising system to protect pesticides from photodegradation. | (Chevallard et al., 2014) |
| GSNO-containing alginate/chitosan nanoparticles | <i>Zea mays</i> L.; <i>Glycine</i> sp. Willd | The nanoherbicide had no effect on the growth and development of the species studied. | (Pereira et al., 2015) |
| SWFe-Imx | <i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. botrytis L. | Nanoherbicide reported a reduction of herbicide release rate, and showed similar herbicidal activity to commercial ones. | (Cabrera et al., 2016) |
| PRCRP@ Fe ₃ O ₄ NPs_CS | <i>Cynodon dactylon</i> (L.) Pers | Nanoherbicide with pH-responsive release and good herbicidal activity. | (Xiang et al., 2017) |
| ATP-NH ₄ CO ₃ -Gly – ASO – PVA | <i>Zoysia matrella</i> (L.) Merr. | Nanoformulation showed good herbicidal activity | (Chi et al., 2017) |
| Clay/Alg/PQ | None | The nanoformulation showed an initial fast release followed by a slow release of the a.i. | (Rashidzadeh et al., 2017) |
| LCHP | <i>Imperata cylindrica</i> (L.) Raeusch | Light-responsive controlled release; the nanoherbicide was effective to control weeds due its high adhesion on the leaf surface. | (Chen et al., 2018a) |
| ONCHP | <i>Cynodon dactylon</i> (L.) Pers. | Light-responsive controlled release nanoherbicide showed a good weed control. | (Liu et al., 2019) |
| Zn/Al-LDH-QC-CS | None | The nanoherbicide showed a slow release of the a.i., and FTIR, XRD, and TGA/DTG analyzes evidenced the chitosan coating. | (Sharif et al., 2020b) |
| MLH-MPP/CMC | None | FTIR, TEM, and SEM analyzes showed herbicide intercalation, and the nanoherbicide reported a controlled release system of the a.i.. | (Hashim et al., 2020) |
| MCRH | <i>Cynodon dactylon</i> (L.) Pers | The release of the herbicide was accelerated in the presence of a magnetic field. Also, the nanoformulation had the same weed control of the commercial ones. | (Chi et al., 2021) |
| Zn/Al-LDH-QC-CMC | None | The system showed a prolonged release profile to the herbicide. | (Sharif et al., 2021) |
| MOF@DiS – NH ₂ | <i>Lolium rigidum</i> Gaudin; | Nanoformulation reported phytotoxic activity against weeds. | (Mejías et al., 2021) |
| MOF@DiS – O – acetil | <i>Echinochloa crus-galli</i> (L.); <i>Amaranthus Viridis</i> L. | | |

Acronyms: Wheat gluten (WG); Organically modified montmorillonite (C30B); montmorillonites (MMT); Ametryne (AMT); nitrosoglutathione (GSNO:S); natural smectite (SW); Imazamox (IMX); pH-responsively controlled-release nanopesticide (PRCRP); Scanning electron microscope (SEM); Alginate (ALG); Light-responsively controlled-release herbicide particle (LCHP); Near-infrared light (NIRL)-responsively controlled-release herbicide particles (ONCHPs); Quinclorac (QC); thermogravimetric analysis (TGA); 3-(4-methoxyphenyl) propionate (MLH-MPP); Carboxymethylcellulose (CMC); Magnetic-responsive controlled-release herbicide; MOFs: Metal–organic frameworks (MCRH); Attapulgite (ATP); Amino silicol oil (ASO); poly(vinyl alcohol) (PVA).

(Cao et al., 2018). The same herbicide loaded into lipid nanoparticles and perylen-3-ylmethanol nanoparticles showed enhanced herbicidal effects in low doses compared with a free a.i. (Atta et al., 2015; Nadiminti et al., 2016). Aerial and root growth is significantly inhibited by atrazine-simazine loaded onto solid lipid nanoparticles (de Oliveira et al., 2015). In another study using Cogon weeds, their growth was better inhibited by chitosan/carboxymethyl nanoparticles carrying diuron (Chen et al., 2018a). It is important to note that the chemical properties of nanoherbicides play a crucial role in their interaction with plant leaves, roots, and seed tissues, their path of entry and cellular fate, and subsequently their target effects.

4. Fate and behaviour of nanoherbicides in plant systems

There are still few experimental studies that focus on the fate and behavior of these nanoherbicides rather than the physiological, metabolic, and biochemical mechanisms involved in plant responses. However, other researchers reported that nanopesticides altered plant gene expression and caused changes in lipid peroxidation, chlorophyll content, protein content, and enzymatic/non-enzymatic antioxidant activity (Zhao et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2019; Pontes et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2021; Oliveira-Pinto et al., 2022). After overcoming biological barriers to entry into a plant cell, nanoherbicides may damage or disrupt the cell membrane of target species and induce electrolyte leakage

into the extracellular medium (Jambunathan, 2010) and lipid peroxidation (Oliveira et al., 2015a). Studies have shown that a mechanism adopted by plants to alleviate stress-induced damage by nanomaterial cell internalization is the compartmentalization of nanostructures into vacuoles (Panariti et al., 2012). Additionally, nanoherbicides may go to plant organelles and induce changes in their functioning (Pérez-de-Luque, 2017; Mittal et al., 2020). For instance, in plant cells, the mitochondrial electron transport chain (ETC) is an important site of reactive oxygen species (ROS) production, followed by chloroplast ETC (Huang et al., 2016). Previous research has found both enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidant activity in response to ROS generation (Oliveira et al., 2015a; Pontes et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2022a). The key factors involved in nanoherbicides' induced ROS can include: (i) prooxidant functional groups attached to the reactive surface of nanoherbicide; (ii) active redox cycling on the surface of nanoherbicide, especially in hybrid (metal or metal oxide nanoparticles-labeled) formulations due to the transition of these nanomaterials; and (iii) particle or cargo-cell interactions (Manke et al., 2013). Nonetheless, more studies are needed to better comprehend the mitochondrial fate of nanoherbicides, mainly focusing on the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle (Wang et al., 2021). Additionally, in the chloroplast, some nanoherbicides induce a decrease in quantum yield of photosystem II (PSII), photosystem I (PSI) deactivation, ferredoxin-NADP+ oxidoreductase (NADPH/NADP+ ratio), and net CO₂ assimilation rate (Oliveira et al.,

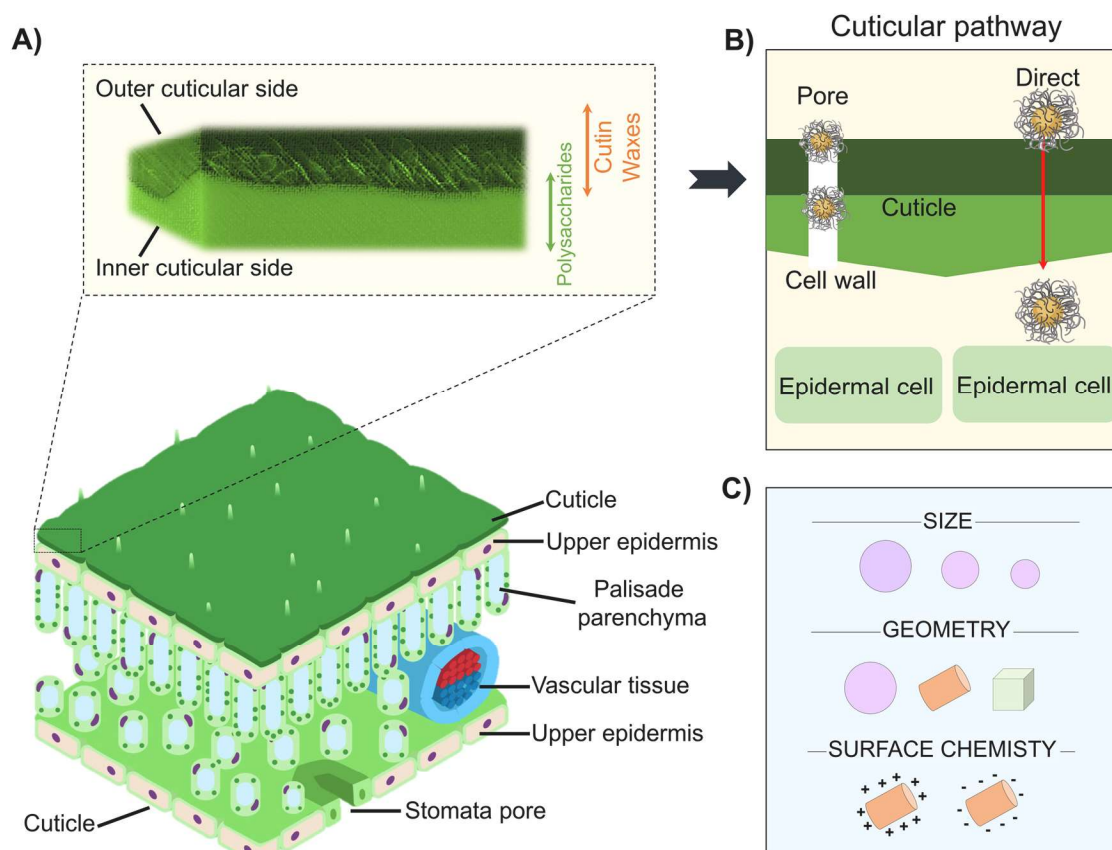


Fig. 2. A) Schematic representation of the anatomy of a leaf structure. B) Potential cuticular pathway for uptake nanoherbicides by leaf. C) Some important physicochemical characteristics of nanoherbicides.

2015b; Forini et al., 2020; Pontes et al., 2021; Takeshita et al., 2021).

In the plant cell nucleus, genotoxicity evaluation in *Allium cepa* cells showed that the herbicides imazapic and imazapyr encapsulated with chitosan/tripolyphosphate and alginate/chitosan nanoparticles caused minor damage compared to the free a.i. (Maruyama et al., 2016). Polycaprolactone nanocapsules (PCL) containing pre-emergent herbicide pretilachlor indicated that the presence of PCL nanoencapsulation acted to reduce the toxicity of the herbicide due to a reduced effect on chromosome aberration in *Allium cepa* (Diyana et al., 2019). Nanopesticides may damage genetic materials if they penetrate inside the cellular nucleus and come into direct contact with DNA molecules or proteins associated with DNA (Singh et al., 2009). In addition, nanoherbicides can up-regulate the expression of antioxidant-related genes (Wang et al., 2022b). Hence, nano-enabled agriculture requires further attention to improve our understanding of the genotoxicity and transcriptomic behavior of nanoherbicides for target and non-target plant species.

The endoplasmic reticulum is responsible for protein and lipid production, and consequently, the possible fate of nanoherbicides. Decreases in protein synthesis are expected when nanoherbicides enter the endoplasmic reticulum. Additionally, when a nanomaterial enters a physiological environment, it rapidly adsorbs proteins, forming what is known as the protein corona (Walkey and Chan, 2012). These interactions are currently poorly studied for nanoherbicides, and more studies are necessary to improve our understanding of their responses. It can acquire a novel biological identity that is distinct from its synthesized form (Wheeler et al., 2021) owing to the nanoherbicide-protein corona.

Cell membranes internalize nanoherbicides via passive processes, i.e., passing through the membrane without transporter or cell energy, or via active processes, such as largely endocytic (Sun et al., 2019; Moore et al., 2022). Additionally, differentiated (i) nanocarrier-(ii) specific cargo uptake and/or cellular transport might occur. For

instance, Moore and coauthors (2022) suggested the co-localization of the nanoherbicide into the membrane-rich Golgi-apparatus, in close proximity to the nucleus (Moore et al., 2022). These results revealed that conventional herbicides compared with nanoherbicides differ in uptake mechanisms and cellular dynamics (Gomes et al., 2022). After entry into cell membranes, nanoherbicides may be trafficked to diverse cell organelles.

Currently, most of the nanoherbicides developed and tested are formulated with cargo molecules of already known a.i. or even with nanoparticles that have been widely studied, which may explain the few experimental articles on the effects and pathways of action of nanoformulations on plant metabolism. However, nanoformulations, acquire novel properties that can affect how plants respond in various ways (Wu et al., 2021). Another important gap is the interaction of nanoherbicides with non-target plants and rhizosphere systems. As recently reported by Zhai et al. (2020) with nanoatrazine, nanoherbicides may have some distinct adverse effects on non-target plants and their rhizosphere bacterial communities, especially after long-term exposure. Thus, the plant-soil system relationship may play an important role in the safe application of nanoherbicides. Therefore, they deserve special attention regarding their mode of action and behavior in plant metabolism. Additionally, understanding the mechanism of action of an herbicide used as chemical cargo is essential to designing transgenic cultivars with specific resistance genes for novel nano-enabled herbicides.

5. Conclusion and future outlook

Recent nano-enabled herbicides have been used for weed management based on inorganic, organic, and hybrid materials. Studies have shown that nanoherbicides can produce more targeted and less toxic formulations for agricultural applications. However, the development

of smart nanoherbicides as well as a better understanding of the mechanisms of action of nanoherbicides is needed to target and non-target organisms. Furthermore, it should be noted that the biological factors limiting the efficiency of nanomaterials-cargo complexes and nanomaterials traveling across barriers in plants may differ in diverse nanoformulation systems. In addition, future research is recommended to contribute to improving the knowledge of the mode of action of nanoherbicides. The number of agrochemicals needed can be decreased in the future with the development of innovative delivery platforms, such as herbicides co-loaded with CRISPR-based genome editing for simultaneous action on non-target plant tissues (Yan et al. 2022). Another important aspect of the development of novel nanoherbicides is the inability of current nanostructured delivery systems to precisely target specific subcellular compartments, particularly guided by bio-recognition motifs as recently reported by Santana et al. (2020). This molecular target recognition needs to be improved for novel nanoformulations, and this can be supported using strategic design, artificial intelligence (AI), and machine learning concepts (Zhang et al., 2021). Thus, numerous investigations are still to be conducted, which may further the development of nanoherbicides to provide products for environmentally friendly and sustainable agriculture.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Acknowledgments

The authors acknowledge funding from National Council for Scientific and Technological Development, CNPq, Brazil (Grant no. #427498/2018-0 and #161360/2021-1), São Paulo Research Foundation, FAPESP, Brazil (Grant no. #2020/12769-0 and #2017/21004-5), and Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior, CAPES, Brazil—Finance Code 001. The figure was partially created in the “Mind the Graph” platform (<https://mindthegraph.com>).

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